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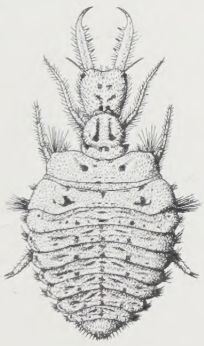

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PSYCHE

Vol. 66 MARCH-JUNE, 1959 Nos. 1-2

THE HABITS OF *PHEIDOLE MILITICIDA* WHEELER (HYMENOPTERA: FORMICIDAE)[1]

BY WM. S. CREIGHTON AND MARTHA P. CREIGHTON
Department of Biology, City College, New York.

During the winter of 1959 the writers were able to study a number of nests of *Pheidole militicida* Wh. These were situated in an area along the eastern base of the Chiricahua Mountains, six to nine miles north of Portal, Arizona. Extended field studies were made on these colonies and samples taken from them were placed in small Janet nests and observed at the Southwestern Research Station. The need for such work will be clear to anyone familiar with W. M. Wheeler's remarkable views on the habits of *militicida*.

Wheeler's initial acquaintance with this ant was made on November 10th, 1910, at Benson, Arizona. A day or two later he found other colonies at Hereford. If Wheeler's hypothesis on the habits of this species is to be appreciated properly, it is important to understand exactly what information he secured from these colonies. Before he excavated them, Wheeler found the remains of numerous majors on some of the chaff piles. The material in the Wheeler Collection indicates that these remains consisted largely of head capsules which lacked all appendages. If Wheeler had found living majors in the nests that he excavated, these disarticulated remains would have received scant attention. Unfortunately, Wheeler did not find living majors in the colonies which he dug out. But it should be remembered that after Wheeler had examined the nests at Benson and Hereford, he knew surprisingly little about the ants that were living in them. He could not even be sure that the majors, whose remains he had discovered on the chaff piles, had come from the nests where he found them. All that Wheeler knew was that he had taken the minor of an undescribed species of *Pheidole* from these nests and that, after considerable digging, he had been unable to secure any accompanying majors.

[1]Contribution from the Southwestern Research Station of the American Museum of Natural History.

The next factual data on *militicida* came to light a year or two later when W. M. Mann excavated nests near Benson in August and found both majors and minors living in them. These majors corresponded to the remains that Wheeler had taken earlier. With both major and minor castes available, Wheeler was in the position to describe *militicida* as a new species, which he did in 1915 (1). If Wheeler had been content to let the matter rest with the description of these two castes his action could have been defended not only as sound but also as conservative, for he had waited until the majors and minors had been certainly associated before presenting his description of them. But Wheeler was not content to limit his efforts to the description of *militicida.* He proceeded to develop a striking hypothesis as to its habits. This was so plausibly presented that one is apt to forget that this highly ingenious account is primarily compounded of supposition. Because Wheeler had found no majors in the Benson and Hereford colonies, he assumed that none were present. Because he had found the remains of majors on the chaff piles of these colonies, Wheeler assumed that all the majors in the colonies had been slaughtered by the minors. Having made these two assumptions Wheeler was forced to make others to support them, for this astonishing behavior on the part of the minor clearly demanded explanation. This Wheeler supplied as follows:

"It appears, therefore, that all the individuals of this caste (the majors) are regularly killed off by the workers on the approach of winter, probably after they have broken open all the hard seeds collected by the workers. Such a slaughter of the members of a large caste during the season when their activities are no longer required, when they would simply be a burden on the colony by consuming stored food and when fresh food cannot be collected, must have great advantages. Although I have never noticed this behavior in any other species of *Pheidole,* I believe that a study of the harvesting species with very large-headed soldiers in the deserts of the southwest may bring other similar cases to light."

It is obvious that the most direct way to test Wheeler's theory would be to examine the nests of *militicida* during the winter months. If such examinations were properly carried out it would be possible to state with certainty whether or not majors are present in the nests at that time. But subsequent observations on *militicida* have all been made during the summer. The writers observed this ant at Safford, Arizona, in July 1950. In August, 1952 A. C. Cole studied colonies at Bayard and Deming, New Mexico, and in August 1956

he found others in the vicinity of Portal, Arizona. The information concerning the exact site of the latter colonies, which Dr. Cole obligingly furnished, was a notable help to this study and we wish to express our thanks for it.

While the observations just cited added to our knowledge of *militicida,* none of them could furnish information on winter conditions in the nests of this species. Thus when Creighton and Gregg reviewed Wheeler's hypothesis in 1955 (2), they could do little more than point out the improbability of his explanation. Although it was clear that a number of southwestern species of *Pheidole,* which have majors with unusually large heads, showed none of the habits predicted by Wheeler, it was still possible that he might have been right in the case of *militicida.* Positive proof that Wheeler's account of the habits of *militicida* is incorrect was secured by the writers in the winter of 1959. During that winter we had fifteen colonies of *militicida* under field observation on all but a few days. Living majors were taken from thirteen of these colonies during the period between January 8th and March 3rd. Our original attempts to secure majors were based upon the obvious method of digging out the colony. This proved to be the worst possible way to get them. Under ordinary conditions only two or three majors stay in the passages near the nest entrance. Since the major of *militicida* is extraordinarily clumsy, it is seldom able to extricate itself if covered with soil. Hence, it is extremely likely to be missed when the nest is dug out, for the major will often remain perfectly quiet if only a thin layer of soil covers it. To be sure that the majors have not been missed, the soil must be sifted as the nest is excavated. With this in mind it is easy to understand why half the nests which Cole excavated in the summer of 1952 (3) appeared to contain no majors. During the first weeks of this study we faced a similar situation. Three of the eight nests excavated had yielded no majors. The remaining five had yielded a total of only fourteen majors, of which the greatest number taken from a single nest was five. Our results were, therefore, inconclusive for in no case had numerous majors been found in any nest.

Then the junior author hit upon a method of using bait to bring the majors out of the nests. The best bait was found to be various sorts of bread or scrambled eggs. Meat seemed decidedly less attractive. The bait was cut into pieces too large for the minors to move and these were placed close to the nest entrance. This baiting seldom failed to produce majors in quantity if continued long enough.

One colony which was baited for five successive days in February yielded a total of seventy-seven majors. Moreover, by using bait majors were secured from nests which had produced none when dug out. For, with one exception, the excavated nests reestablished themselves after a few weeks. This is clear evidence that these nests had not been fully exposed. The character of the *militicida* nest would make complete exposure difficult. All the nests that we have encountered have been built in light, friable soil between large stones. As these stones are removed the soil between them crumbles away and this obliterates any passages that were in it. As a result it is usually impossible to follow the passages to any depth and as excavation proceeds there is not the slightest indication of the direction it should take. In our opinion no nest of *militicida* has yet been completely excavated.

In areas where *militicida* is abundant there are often places where several nest entrances are close together. The distance between the entrances will vary from two to eight feet. It seems impossible at present to state whether each entrance represents a separate nest or whether they all belong to a single elongated nest. The total nest count given in this paper (15) is based upon the latter supposition. The total number of entrances found is five or six times greater. It was soon found that majors and minors from entrances a few feet apart could be mixed together without showing any signs of animosity. At first we accepted this as positive proof that the several entrances all belonged to one nest. But later the disconcerting fact came to light that the same result could be secured with specimens from nests a half a mile or more apart. The only explanation that would seem to fit this surprising behavior is that *militicida* is almost totally devoid of inter-colony animosity. The situation is made even more inexplicable by the strong animosity which *militicida* exhibits toward other species of ants.

We expected *militicida* to forage sporadically during the winter but it was a surprise to discover that it is one of the most consistent winter foragers in the area where it occurs. The only other ant which shows comparable activity is *Myrmecocystus mimicus* Wh. Except for one or two days when rain or snow fell, the minors of *militicida* were out every day during January, February and early March. As a rule the foraging did not begin until 3:00 P. M. By that time the surface temperature had reached 60°F. (16°C.) or better. Full foraging activity developed when the surface temperature reached 90°F. (31°C.). During January the surface temperature

drops rapidly towards sundown and foraging in that month ordinarily terminates soon after 5:00 P. M. This brief period of foraging is extended as the days lengthen and by the end of February the foraging lasts about three hours. During the winter months the seeds of two grasses are the principal ones collected. These are the fluff grass, *Tridens pulchellus* Hitch and the spike pappus grass, *Enneapogon desvauxii* Beauv.[2] Both these grasses fail to lose all their seeds at the end of the growing season, but the number of unshed seeds in the heads is low. Counts on five samples (30 cc. each) of fluff grass heads taken within foraging range of five *militicida* colonies gave an average of only 4.6 seeds per cubic centimeter. Nevertheless, these residual seeds furnish a steady, if meager, supply for, as the winter advances, the seeds or the spikelets containing them are gradually blown out of the heads and deposited in a thin layer on the surface of the soil wherever there is a windbreak. In the winter months the *militicida* minors collect their seeds entirely from this layer. During the many days that the foraging minors were observed, not one was seen to ascend a grass stem to get at the seeds. It is difficult to explain this reaction, for the percentage of seeds in the heads is several times as great as that in the layer on the ground. For this layer contains many spikelets that are devoid of seeds and the minors frequently bring these empty envelopes home. On several occasions we took numbers of the spikelets away from the workers as they reached the vicinity of the nest and found that not more than a third of these contained seeds.

Despite the short foraging period and the scant seed supply, the *militicida* minors bring in many seeds, for on warm days foraging is very active. Each nest entrance usually has a single foraging column but sometimes two or three columns may leave the same entrance. The columns are seldom more than fifteen feet long, an indication of the easy availability of the seed supply, regardless of its low yield. Since the rate of seed consumption in the captive colonies was very low, it seems probable that winter foraging augments the number of seeds stored in the nests. The *militicida* colony is thus provided with an abundant store of seeds which it can use with the arrival of spring. The spring months are the driest part of the year in the areas where *militicida* occurs. At Portal the total precipitation during April, May and June averages 1.52 inches, approximately 8.2% of the an-

[2]We wish to thank Mr. Joseph Welch, who was working at the Station when this study was made, for his kindness in identifying these and other grasses as well as for helpful suggestions on the terminology of the spikelet.

nual total of 18.40 inches (4). In other stations where *militicida* occurs the percentage of spring precipitation is even lower. As the spring drought begins, the seed supply reaches its lowest ebb, for winter foraging has depleted the meager residue of seeds and no more seeds are likely to be set until after the summer rains. These unfavorable conditions often lead to a suppression of foraging in the spring, but this does not mean that the colony is inactive. For the sexual brood is brought to maturity at this time with the marriage flight following in early July. Thus the heaviest drain on the supply of seeds stored in the nests occurs during the spring months. It is at this time that the stored seeds are broken open and the food in them is made available to the rapidly developing brood.

Before taking up the feeding habits of *militicida* it is advisable to discuss certain features of the grass seeds which they use for food. At maturity a typical grass seed is enclosed in a complicated envelope of bracts. The outermost of these bracts are called glumes, the median ones lemmae and the innermost ones paleae. The lemmae often bear prominent projecting bristles called awns. These parts are attached, close above one another to a much-shortened stem called the rhachilla. Collectively these parts make up a spikelet, which may contain one or more seeds. As a rule when a mature seed is shed, all of the spikelet except the glumes is shed with it. In some grasses this envelope fits the seed tightly, which makes its extraction difficult. In other grasses the envelope is loosely fitted around the seed and its extraction is comparatively easy. The spikelet of *E. desvauxii* shows the first condition, that of *T. pulchellus* the second. Since most of the seeds which the minors of *militicida* bring back to the nests are still in the spikelets, the seeds musts be freed of these envelopes before they can be conveniently stored. Observations on the captive colonies showed that the seeds of *T. pulchellus* offer no particular problem because of their loose envelopes. The minors have little difficulty in pushing the lemmae aside and can often pull out the seeds without detaching the surrounding parts. Perhaps this is why the majors so seldom help when *pulchellus* spikelets are being handled. The spikelets of *E. desvauxii* are quite another matter. Each of the close-fitting lemmae has nine slender awns at its tip. These radiate outward at an angle of about 45 degrees and form a complete circle of bristles at the upper end of the spikelet. When attempting to free these seeds of the envelope both majors and minors will grasp the awns in their mandibles. When the major does so the awns are usually broken off, but the minor handles them more gently and when two minors grasp

the awns at opposite sides of the spikelet and pull in opposite directions they are usually able to break apart the lemmae and thus expose the inner parts of the spikelet. The seed then lies between two paleae but these do not completely enclose it and it is a simple operation for the minors to pick the exposed seed out. When the major extracts the seeds the lower end of the spikelet is grasped in the major's jaws. Pressure from these either breaks the lemmae apart or, if the seed has exactly the right position as the jaws close, it is forced outward between the lemmae and paleae, which spread enough to let the seed squeeze through. The envelope is often left intact when the seed has been extracted by this method. Whether intact or in fragments, the envelope is then ready to be placed on the chaff pile and the seed extracted from it may be cracked open and eaten or stored in one of the seed chambers.

There is abundant evidence that when the seeds are stored they are entire. The minors in our artificial nests spent many hours arranging and rearranging the seeds in groups. We take this to be the equivalent of the packing of the seed chambers in a free nest. No seed in these groups was ever damaged in any way until it was taken out and eaten. Moreover, there were usually a number of partially eaten seeds present in the nests, for the *pulchellus* seeds are seldom entirely consumed. Such opened seeds invariably shriveled after a day or two and usually moulded a few days later. That cracked or damaged seeds could be stored for months in the seed chambers seems thoroughly impossible.

We were surprised to discover that all the seeds opened in the artificial colonies were opened by the minors. The majors never made the slightest efforts to open the seeds and rarely paid any attention to them once their envelopes had been removed. In an effort to force the majors to crack open seeds, several nests containing only majors were set up. These were liberally supplied with seeds of *T. pulchellus.* Some of the majors in these nests lived for several weeks but they never made any attempt to open the seeds and ultimately all of them died, apparently from starvation, in the midst of the seeds which could have supplied them with food. The minors open the seeds of *pulchellus* and *desvauxii* by gnawing at the pointed end of the seed. Sometimes the seed is held by one minor and gnawed open by another, but a more common method involves only one minor, who places the blunt end of the seed on the floor of the nest and, with the seed held in a vertical position gnaws at its pointed end. The seeds of *desvauxii* are entirely consumed but, as noted above, those of *pulchellus*

are usually only half eaten. This may be due to the fact that in *pulchellus* the embryo is confined to the half of the seed which the ants eat, whereas in *desvauxii* the embryo extends more than three-quarters the length of the seed.

As will be seen from the previous paragraphs, the major of *militicida* has a very limited part in the harvesting operations and even this small part can be handled equally well by the minors. It seemed unlikely that the major would be limited to so small a share in the activities of the colony. The first hint that they might perform some unique activity essential to the colony was provided by the majors who came out of the nests during baiting. The junior author, who spent much time at this work, noticed that before the major emerged from the nest it would often stand for a considerable period just inside the nest entrance. When it did so it was a thorough nuisance to the minors, who had difficulty in getting past what amounted to a road block. When the major finally emerged from the nest it usually opened its jaws to their fullest extent and made short lunges in the direction of small pebbles and bits of grass as though it were trying to bite them. Later it was found that this same lunging and biting response could be elicited by throwing a small beam of light into the opening before the major left it. It was further clear that the primary reason why the major left the nest was not hunger. They almost never went directly to the bait, but wandered around in their clumsy fashion as though they were looking for something else. It was only after considerable patrol that some of them would go to the bait. These responses suggested that the function of the major might be to guard the nest entrance and, to test this, a nest was constructed which gave them the opportunity to do so.

This nest consisted of two chambers connected by a single, long passage which could be blocked or unblocked in the middle without disturbing the nest. The block consisted of a cotton plug which could be pushed into the connecting passage through a glass tube set at right angles to it. With the plug in place the nest was divided into two separate chambers; with the plug removed the two chambers communicated with each other through the single connecting passage. After the plug was in place majors and minors of *militicida* were placed in one chamber and their prospective intruders in the other. The nest was then set aside until both groups were accustomed to their surroundings. Usually it took no more than twelve hours for each group to become thoroughly tranquil and to demonstrate by this tranquility that it was unaware of the other group's presence nearby.

The ants selected as intruders were *Pogonomyrmex maricopa* Wh. and *Pogonomyrmex californicus* Buck. This choice was made because both species occur in close proximity to *militicida* colonies in the field and the harvesting activities of all three species lead to frequent encounters outside the nests. The results secured from the experimental nest described above were highly interesting. On the removal of the blocking cotton plug both groups would begin to explore the communicating passage. They did so in an entirely different fashion. The *Pogonomyrmex* workers moved slowly into the passage but rapidly backed out of it when they became aware of the advancing *militicida* workers. In most cases the *militicida* minors first entered the passage. Some of them would usually be seized and killed by the *Pogonomyrmex* workers but others returned to the nest and alerted the majors. When these entered the passage they showed precisely the reactions that they had exhibited around their nest entrances. They advanced very cautiously, with the jaws wide open, and made frequent short lunges in the direction of the *Pogonomyrmex*

Fig. 1 — Major of *Pheidole militicida* in the defensive posture.

workers. As the *militicida* majors wedged themselves tightly into the passage, three or four ranks deep, the passage was completely blocked and the front face of this block was a highly dangerous area for the *Pogonomyrmex* workers for it consisted of the closely approximated heads and wide open jaws of the *militicida* majors. As to what happened next depended on the *Pogonomyrmex* workers, who would charge up to the barrier and slash at the *militicida* majors with their mandibles. These attacks were usually futile, for the only exposed parts of the *militicida* major which could be damaged were

the antennae and these were held so closely against the head that the *Pogonomyrmex* workers were seldom able to grasp them. If these attacks were vigorously pressed the *militicida* major usually stood perfectly still and waited until the mandibles of its opponent were near its own. It then lunged forward, closed its jaws on the mandible of the *Pogonomyrmex* worker and attempted to break off the crushed mandible. The majors did not always succeed in doing so, particularly in the case of *maricopa,* whose heavy mandibles are hard to break, but they seldom failed to mangle the mandible so badly that it was useless. It may be added that this attack on the mandible is deliberate, for the *militicida* major will rarely strike at other parts when these are presented. We have repeatedly seen the *Pogonomyrmex* workers thrust their antennae or legs between the open jaws of the *militicida* major without causing the major to strike. They do not do so until there is a good chance that the mandible can be grasped and they rarely miss their target. After a number of *Pogonomyrmex* workers had been put out of action with useless mandibles, or sooner if the *Pogonomyrmex* workers did not press the attack vigorously, the *militicida* majors emerged from the passage and began a different sort of action. They no longer faced their opponents and struck at their mandibles but approached them from the rear and struck at the thorax or the petiolar nodes. As a result, most of the *Pogonomyrmex* workers were ultimately cut in two, either at the petiole or behind the pronotum. In this more open fighting it was also obvious that the petiolar nodes and the mesothoracic area were the principal targets. An examination of the *Pogonomyrmex* workers at the end of an engagement always showed much damage to mandibles, thorax and petiolar nodes and surprisingly little damage to legs and antennae. In short, there is nothing haphazard about the way in which the *militicida* majors deal with their opponents; they only strike at parts which will put their opponents out of action or kill them. It is clear that their method is highly effective for it was only occasionally that the *Pogonomyrmex* workers got the better of the engagement. Even when they outnumbered the *militicida* majors they often failed to kill a single one of them and when they did so it was usually a result of the *militicida* major having been stung. This incapacitates them but does not immediatelv kill them.

It should be clear that the activities just described are considerably more methodical that the ordinary scrimmages between fighting ants. In these activities the *militicida* major shows an efficiency that

is completely unlike its bumbling efforts elsewhere. This, plus the fact that these responses are repeated with surprising exactness time after time, and by majors from different nests, leads us to conclude that they are the normal guarding responses of the *militicida* major. If this is true the major of *militicida* is best regarded as a soldier. Its role in the harvesting activities of the colony is slight and it is not primarily a seed-crusher, as has been mistakenly supposed.

The defensive activities of the *militicida* major probably account for the mutilated remains which Wheeler found when he discovered this species, for the defending majors do not always dispatch the intruders without loss to themselves. This seems a more probable explanation than that proposed by Creighton and Gregg in 1955 (2), who suggested that the accumulation of dead majors discovered by Wheeler might have been a result of the high death rate of that caste during the peak of the harvest season. This now seems unlikely, for the death rate of the majors during the winter months has proved to be extremely low. Most of the fifteen colonies that we studied discarded no dead majors during the three months that they were under observation. Only four dead majors were placed on the chaff piles during this period. Each of these was carefully examined under a binocular microscope for signs of mutilation and each was found to be completely undamaged with not even a tarsal claw missing. This disposes of the last bit of evidence on which Wheeler based his hypothesis, for it is now clear that the minors of *militicida* neither kill the majors nor cut them to pieces after they have died. Thus Wheeler's views of the habits of *militicida* have proved to be at total variance with what these habits actually are.

In conclusion, it may be noted that *militicida* is a very difficult subject for investigations in artificial nests. This species is unusually sensitive both to temperature and humidity. Temperatures below freezing invariably kill the ants and they are almost as seriously affected by a heavy condensation of water on the glass of the nests. They seem unable to keep out of the water droplets and many of the minors die in them. They also die if the nest is too dry. This sensitivity made it difficult to maintain the captive colonies for any length of time. At the suggestion of Dr. Robert Chew, of the Department of Biology of the University of Southern California, the artificial nests were placed on a rack, in a covered aquarium, above a saturated solution of sodium chloride. In a closed system this should maintain a constant humidity of 78% of saturation regardless of temperature. The arrangement proved eminently satisfactory. It

not only reduced condensation but also largely eliminated the need for adding water to the individual nests. We wish to thank Dr. Chew for suggesting a method which not only benefited this study but which should be of value to anyone faced with the maintainance of a "fussy" species in the laboratory.

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THE SPIDER GENUS *STYPOSIS* (ARANEAE, THERIDIIDAE)[1]

By Herbert W. Levi
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Theridiid spiders usually have eight eyes. Only recently the genus *Archerius* Levi (1957, Trans. Amer. Micros. Soc., 76: 114) was described from some California specimens having only six eyes. Since then an eight-eyed species from Japan was seen, a species having the anterior median eyes small. The number of eyes, then, may not be of generic importance.

Since the work on *Archerius,* another theridiid genus has been found in which the eye number is variable. In some species the anterior median eyes are present but small; other species lack them entirely. Judging by their similar appearance and by the genital structure, the species are closely related and belong to the genus *Styposis.*

A grant from the National Institutes of Health (E-1944) and a National Science Foundation grant (G-4317) made the completion of this paper possible. I would like to thank Dr. W. J. Gertsch and Dr. A. M. Chickering for specimens used and Professor M. Vachon for permitting me to examine *S. flavescens* in the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle in Paris.

Styposis Simon

Styposis Simon, 1894, Histoire Naturelle des Araignées, 1: 592. Type species by original designation and monotypy: *S. flavescens* Simon.

Small unpigmented spiders, less than 2 mm. total length. In some species carapace almost circular, weakly sclerotized, with six large eyes (except all eyes relatively small in *S. ajo,* Figure 27) arranged in two groups of three eyes touching each other (Figs. 1, 5, 10, 11). In other species *(S. flavescens, S. scleropsis)* carapace longer than wide, sclerotized, with raised reticulate pattern (Figs. 18, 24). In all species anterior median eyes absent or minute, their maximum diameter equal to radius of posterior medians. Chelicerae weak with one or two teeth on anterior margin (Fig 11), probably none on posterior. Legs fairly long; in some species patella and tibia 2.7 times carapace length *(S. clausis),* in others shorter 1.4 times carapace length *(S. ajo, S. flavescens).* Legs with many setae; comb on fourth tarsus greatly reduced, its setae almost smooth. Abdomen soft, sometimes wider than long, or high. Colulus two minute hairs slightly anterior of

[1]Published with the aid of a grant from the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard College.

usual position, difficult to discern and could not be found in some species.

Female genitalia with two seminal receptacles. Male palpus weakly sclerotized, parts translucent and difficult to delineate. Bulb twisted so that embolus faces the outside (and is partly hidden by the cymbium), and median apophysis faces ventrally (Figs. 6, 9, 16, 19). Median apophysis (M in Figs. 8, 14, 15, 20) a very large structure, functional, its end lying against the paracymbial hook (Fig. 14) at the distal end of the cymbium. Radix (R) present. The large structure supporting the embolus in *S. chickeringi* and *S. flavescens* probably is the radix (R in Figs. 14, 15, 20).

Six species are known from Central America and northern South America and one from the southwestern United States.

Styposis differs from *Archerius* by lacking the large colulus and by being less sclerotized. It differs from *Sphyrotinus* by having the anterior median eyes reduced in size or absent and by the unusual position of the bulb in the palpal cymbium.

Styposis flavescens Simon

Figures 7, 18-22

Styposis flavescens Simon, 1894, Histoire Naturelle des Araignées, 1:592. Fig. 599. ♀ type from Venezuela, in the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, examined.

Description. Carapace, sternum brown. Legs light brown. Abdomen whitish, without pigment. Carapace longer than wide. Cephalothorax heavily sclerotized; carapace and sternum with a net-like sclerotized pattern (Fig. 18). Diameter of anterior median eyes about equal to the radius of posterior medians. Anterior median eyes their radius apart, their radius from laterals. Posterior median eyes one-third diameter apart, two-thirds from laterals. Abdomen suboval in shape. Total length of female 1.4 mm. Carapace, 0.68 mm. long, 0.53 mm wide. First femur, 0.89 mm.; patella and tibia, 0.92 mm.; metatarsus 0.62 mm; tarsus, 0.41 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.68 mm.; third, 0.47 mm.; fourth, 0.68 mm. Total length of male 1.5 mm. Carapace 0.75 mm. long, 0.56 mm. wide. First femur, 1.04 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.22 mm.; metatarsus, 0.81 mm.; tarsus, 0.47 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.83 mm.; third, 0.59 mm.; fourth, 0.70 mm. The epigynum (Figs. 7, 22) has a slight median projection. The palpus (Figs. 19, 20) has a median apophysis with two projecting prongs, easily seen in lateral view. (Fig. 7 was made from the type, Figs. 18-22 from specimens collected in Nicaragua).

Record. Nicaragua. Musawas, Waspuc River, Oct. 10-31, 1955, ♀, ♂, Nov. 1-4, 1955, ♀, ♂ (B. Malkin).

Styposis chickeringi, new species
Figures 10-17

Types. Male holotype and female paratypes from El Valle, Panama, July 1936 (A. M. Chickering), in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.

Description. Spider colorless, except for silvery eyes and spots of pigment where anterior median eyes usually are. Posterior median eyes one diameter apart, touching laterals. Chelicerae with one blunt tooth (Fig. 11). Abdomen wider than long (Fig. 10). Measurements of male holotype, total length 1.3 mm. Carapace, 0.77 mm. long, 0.72 mm. wide. First femur, 1.50 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.82 mm.; metatarsus, 1.32 mm.; tarsus, 0.44 mm. Second patella and tibia, 1.22 mm.; third, 0.75 mm.; fourth, 0.96 mm. Measurements of female paratype, total length 1.3 mm. Carapace, 0.60 mm. long, 0.55 mm. wide. First femur, 1.25 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.35 mm.; metatarsus, 0.96 mm.; tarsus, 0.36 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.88 mm.; third, 0.52 mm.; fourth, 0.82 mm.

Diagnosis. The genitalia (Figs. 12, 13, 16, 17) as well as the eye distance separate this species from the others of this genus.

Styposis nicaraguensis, new species
Figures 8-9

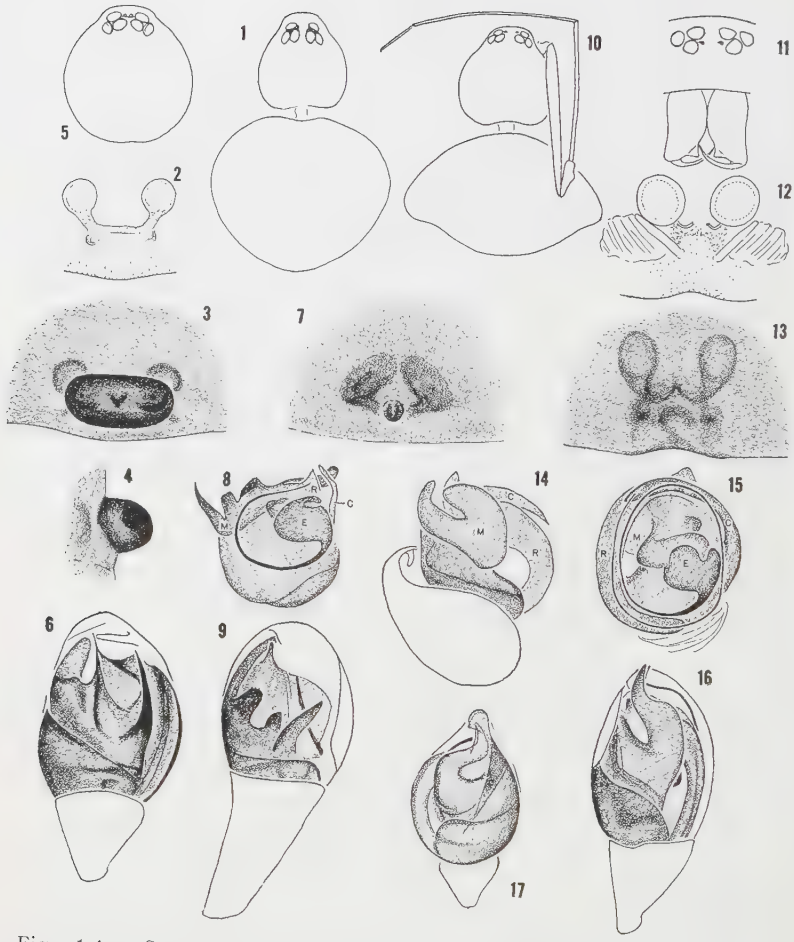
Type. Male type from Musawas, Waspuc River, Nicaragua, October 10, 31, 1955 (B. Malkin), in the American Museum of Natural History.

Description. Spider slightly yellowish. Anterior median eyes absent. Anterior eyes slightly more than their diameter apart. Posterior median eyes their radius apart, touching laterals. Chelicerae with two teeth on the anterior margin. Total length of male type 1.4 mm. Carapace 0.62 mm. long, 0.55 mm. wide. First femur, 1.46 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.55 mm.; metatarsus 1.03 mm.; tarsus, 0.47 mm. Second patella and tibia, 1.0 mm.; third, 0.56 mm.; fourth, 0.94 mm.

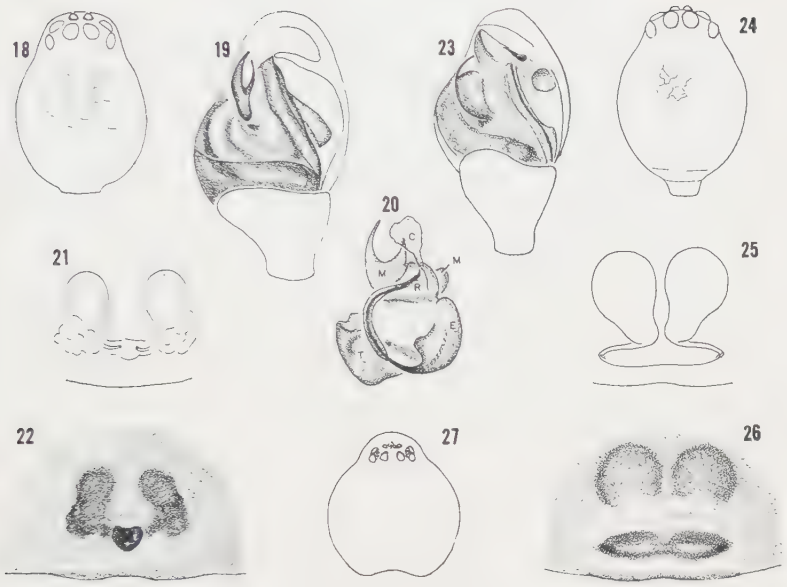
Diagnosis. The male palpus (Fig. 9) distinguishes this species.

Styposis clausis, new species
Figure 1-4

Types. Female holotype, female paratype from Forest Reserve, Canal Zone, July 4-6, 1939 (A. M. Chickering), in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.



Figs. 1-4. *Styposis clausis,* new species. 1. Female. 2. Female genitalia, dorsal view. 3. Epigynum. 4. Epigynum from side. Figs. 5-6. *S. rancho,* new species. 5. Carapace of male. 6. Left palpus. Fig. 7. *S. flavescens* Simon, epigynum. Figs. 8-9. *S. nicaraguensis,* new species, palpus. 8. Expanded, ectal view. 9. Ventral view. Figs. 10-17. *S. chickeringi,* new species. 10. Female. 11. Head of female. 12. Female genitalia, dorsal view. 13. Epigynum. 14. Palpus expanded, subventral view. 15. Palpus expanded, ectal view. 16. Palpus of type. 17. Right palpus of paratype drawn at slightly different angle.



Figs. 18-22. *S. flavescens* Simon. 18. Carapace of female. 19-20. Left palpus. 19. Ventral view. 20. Ectal view, expanded. 21. Female genitalia, dorsal view. 22. Epigynum. Figs. 23-24. *S. scleropsis,* new species. 23. Palpus. 24. Carapace of male. Figs. 25-27. *S. ajo,* new species. 25. Female genitalia, dorsal view. 26. Epigynum. 27. Carapace of female. (Abbreviations: C, conductor; E, embolus; M, median apophysis; R, radix; T, tegulum).

Description. Carapace slightly yellowish, otherwise colorless. Six eyes. Anterior eyes one diameter apart. Posterior median eyes one-third diameter apart, almost touching laterals. Chelicerae with one blunt tooth on anterior margin. Abdomen wider than long when filled with eggs, otherwise longer than wide. It is not known whether the structure on the epigynum (Figs. 3, 4) is an epigynal plug or part of the epigynum. As the structures of the two specimens examined differ slightly, it probably is an epigynal plug. Total length 1.7 mm. Carapace, 0.73 mm. long, 0.69 mm. wide. First femur, 1.72 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.95 mm.; metatarsus, 1.33 mm.; tarsus, 0.52 mm. Second patella and tibia, 1.14 mm.; third, 0.73 mm.; fourth, 1.06 mm.

Diagnosis. The arrangement of the eyes (Fig. 1) and genitalia (Fig. 2) separate this species from others.

Styposis rancho, new species

Figures 5-6

Type. Male type from Rancho Grande, Venezuela, December 20, 1954 (A. M. Nadler), in the American Museum of Natural History.

Description. Carapace with a slightly dusky border. Abdomen with some white pigment on dorsum. Anterior median eyes minute. Anterior lateral eyes about one diameter apart. Posterior median eyes one-third of their diameter apart. Chelicerae with one tooth on the anterior margin. Abdomen probably wider than long, damaged in the type specimen. Total length 1.6 mm. Carapace 0.62 mm. long, 0.54 mm. wide. First femur, 0.96 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.02 mm.; metatarsus, 0.75 mm.; tarsus, 0.34 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.77 mm.; third, 0.45 mm.; fourth, 0.65 mm.

Diagnosis. The eye arrangement (Fig. 5) and the palpus (Fig. 6) separate this species from others.

Styposis scleropsis, new species

Figures 23, 24

Type. Male from Summit, Panama Canal Zone, August 23-28, 1950 (A. M. Chickering), in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.

Description. Carapace, sternum, legs light brown. Abdomen grayish white. Carapace sclerotized, reticulate. Cephalothorax slightly elongated behind (Fig. 24). Anterior median eyes half the diameter of other eyes. Anterior median eyes their radius apart, two-thirds diameter from laterals. Posterior median eyes almost touching, their radius from laterals. Chelicerae heavy with a large tooth far removed from base of fang and a smaller tooth on base of larger one. Abdomen higher than long. Around the spinnerets a very lightly sclerotized ring, hardly different in color from less sclerotized portions. Colulus with two setae quite far anterior. Total length 1.2 mm. Carapace, 0.78 mm. long, 0.52 mm. wide. First femur, 1.00 mm.; patella and tibia, 1.18 mm.; metatarsus, 0.65 mm.; tarsus, 0.39 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.76 mm.; third, 0.48 mm.; fourth, 0.66 mm.

Diagnosis. This species resembles *Cerocida* in the slightly elongated cephalothorax and the high abdomen. However, the small anterior median eyes and the palpal structure place it in *Styposis.* The shape of the carapace and the transparency of the palpal sclerites (Fig. 23) separate it from other species.

Styposis ajo, new species
Figures 25-27

Type. Female from 30 miles south of Ajo, Pima County, Arizona, January 4, 1941 (S. and D. Mulaik), in the American Museum of Natural History.

Description. Colorless except for pigment around eyes. Diameter of anterior median eyes less than half that of others. Anterior median eyes two and one-half diameters apart, one diameter from laterals. Posterior median eyes one diameter apart, their radius from laterals. Abdomen oval, longer than wide. Total length 1.6 mm. Carapace, 0.60 mm. long, 0.55 mm. wide. First femur, 0.78 mm.; patella and tibia, 0.88 mm.; metatarsus, 0.62 mm.; tarsus, 0.39 mm. Second patella and tibia, 0.67 mm.; third, 0.52 mm.; fourth, 0.83 mm.

Diagnosis. This species differs from others by the shape of the epigynum (Fig. 26). It is the only member of the genus from north of Central America.

FOSSIL NEMOPTERIDAE (NEUROPTERA).[1]

By F. M. Carpenter
Harvard University

The living members of the neuropterous family Nemopteridae have a wide but irregular geographical distribution. Although they occur in southern Europe, Asia Minor, India, South America and Africa, they have not been found in North America. However, a fossil species, *Halter americana,* was described by Cockerell in 1907 from the Florissant shales in Colorado.[2] The published description of this fossil, unfortunately, was too brief and incomplete to be of use to specialists on Nemopteridae. Navas, who subsequently examined the type specimen in the British Museum (Natural History), published a new, but very inadequate, account of the fossil in 1913, erected a new genus, *Marquettia,* for it, and included a rough figure of the fore wing. The present paper is a more detailed description of the specimen, made in connection with my preparation of the insect part of the Treatise on Invertebrate Palaeontology.

I examined the type of *americana* in the British Museum in 1938, and Dr. R. Baker, of the Department of Palaeontology of the Museum, has recently sent me a series of excellent photographs of it. A second specimen of *americana,* contained in the Natural History Museum of the University of Colorado, has been loaned to me for study by the director of the Museum, Dr. Hugo Rodeck; it has added some significant features to our knowledge of the species. I have taken this occasion to discuss briefly the nemopterid *Olivierina metzeli,* which Pierce and Kirkby have recently described from an Oligocene deposit in Montana.

Unfortunately, the generic classification of the living Nemopteridae is far from satisfactory. Navas' two revisional studies were published nearly fifty years ago (1910, 1912), and the generic classification included there was mainly an arbitrary one. The genera were based almost entirely upon the shapes of the hind wings, without regard to the probably occurrence of convergence in several lines of evolution. The venation of the fore wing is surprisingly constant throughout the entire group with the exception of a very few species in which the

[1]Published with the aid of a grant from the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard College.

[2]This fossil naturally aroused much interest. It was selected by the editors of the Entomological News (19:34, 1908) as the most remarkable insect made known during the year 1907, and it was reproduced on the cover of the issues of the News for 1908.

pattern is much reduced. A satisfactory generic classification of the nemopterids will almost certainly not be achieved until the terminal abdominal segments of the males have been studied in detail for the majority of the species described from all parts of the world. The generic assignments of the fossils discussed below must, of course, be made mainly on the basis of the venation of the fore wing and the general shape of the hind wing, these being the characteristics which have been used in the classification of the living species up to the present time.

Genus *Marquettia* Navas

Navas, 1913, Mem. Real Acad. Cien. y Artes de Barcelona, 10:7

Head shaped much as in *Lertha,* the rostrum present but not elongate. Front wing broadly oval, with a venational pattern more or less characteristic of that found in the tribe Stenonemiini (Orfila, 1954). The radial sector is extensively branched, having ten main branches in addition to the anterior media.[3] The pterostigma is small and it was probably very light in color in the living insect, as in *Lertha.* The hind wing is slender, about the same as in *Kirbynia* in general form, except that it has a more rounded apex, like that of *Olivierina* and *Halterina;* it has two dilations, the dilated portion being nearly uniformly dark in color.

Type species: *Halter americana* Cockerell.

As pointed out above, this genus is related, so far as we can see from the known structure, to several stenonemiine genera, but it stands apart from all of these by the extensive development of the radial sector. In this respect, I consider the genus *Marquettia* to be the most primitive of the genera of the Nemopteridae known at the present time.

Marquettia americana (Cockerell)

Plate 1 and text figure 1.

Halter americana Cockerell, 1907, Science, 26:466
Halter americana Cockerell, 1908, Pop. Sci. Mo., 72: 125
Marquettia americana Navas, 1913, Mem. Real Acad. Cien. y Artes de Barcelona, 10:484, fig. 4.

Fore wing, length, 31 mm.; width, 10 mm. Length of hind wing, 44 mm.; length of body, 16 mm.; length of beak, 2.5 mm. The vena-

[3] I have used here the venational nomenclature proposed by Dr. P. A. Adams in his "Studies in the Neuroptera, with Special Reference to Wing Structure and Evolution in the Osmyloidea" (unpublished doctoral thesis, Harvard University, June 1958).

tion is typical of that of the tribe Stenonemiini, as shown in text figure 1, with the exception of the presence of the numerous branches of the radial sector. The hind wing, which is about one and one-half times the length of the fore wing, has a slender petiole and terminates in two conspicuous dilations. The distal dilation appears to be at the termination of the wing; there does not seem to be a terminal extension, tapering more nearly to a point, as Navas indicated by dotted lines in his figure 4 (1913). The two dilations are almost certainly somewhat twisted as the fossil is preserved; this, of course, is what one would expect from the condition of the hind wing as it occurs in most living specimens of the family. The petiole of the wing is hyaline, but the two dilations are almost solidly dark in color, although there is an indication of a small hyaline area in the region of the twisting; this light area could, of course, be due to peculiarities of preservation, although the two light areas are in the same position in both of the hind wings.

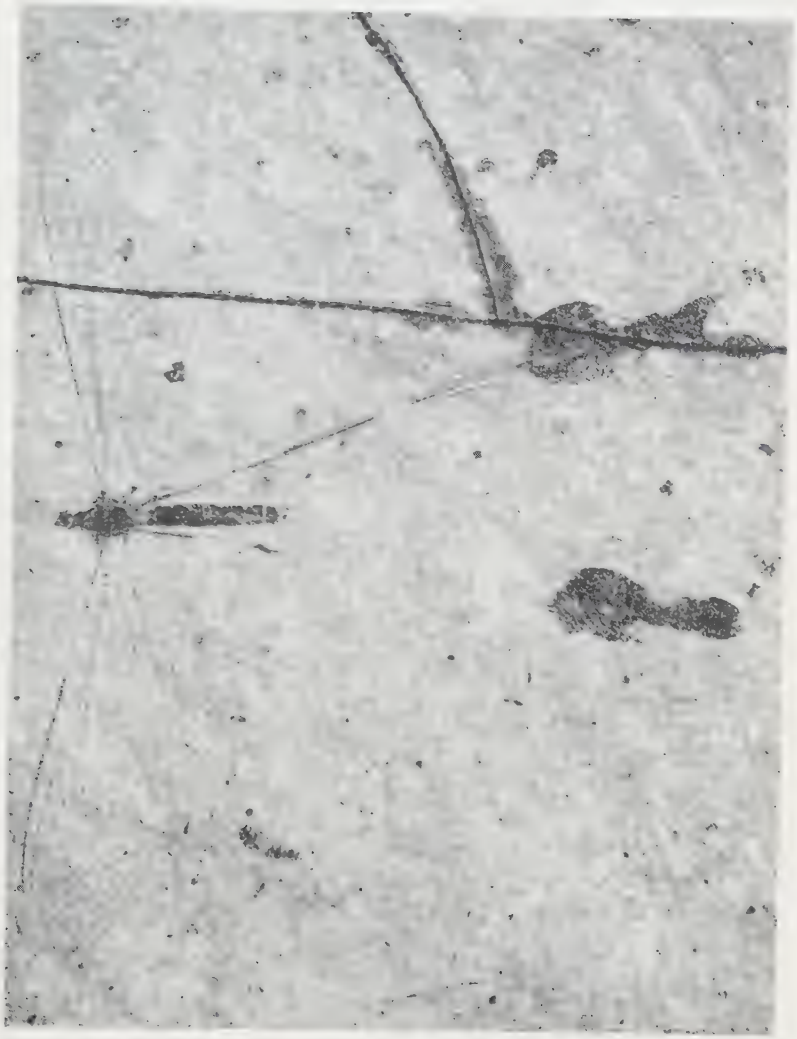
Holotype: This consists of a nearly complete specimen with all four wings outstretched (plate 1), with the venation of the front wings very clear; collected in the Florissant shales, Colorado;[4] deposited in the Department of Palaeontology, British Museum (Natural History).

The species which Pierce and Kirkby described (1959) from Oligocene shales in Montana as *Olivierina metzeli* is apparently closely related to *americana* and may in fact be that species. The size of the insect is virtually identical with that of *americana.* Unfortunately, the specimen on which the *metzeli* is based is poorly preserved; the venation of the fore wing is not discernible, and the form of the hind wing is not clearly shown. The authors state that the dilated part of the hind wing narrows for a short distance and widens again to a narrow inflation. Mrs. Kirkby informs me that, though the apical portion is not complete in the type specimen, there is enough evidence preserved to show that the "paddle" widens again. Pierce and Kirkby apparently incorrectly interpreted Cockerell's description of his *americana* and they were unaware of Navas' published redescription of *americana* and of his establishment of the genus *Marquettia.* In his account of *americana,* Cockerell stated that the black area of

[4]Formerly thought to be of Miocene age but now usually considered Oligocene.

Explanation of Plate 1

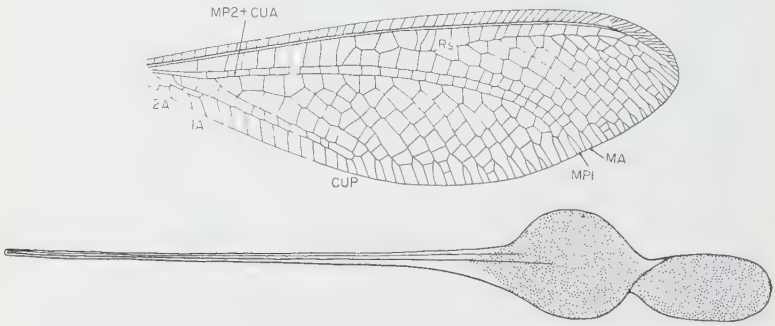
Marquettia americana (Cock.). Photograph of holotype [Courtesy of British Museum (Natural History)].



the hind wing was solid and continuous, not broken into two as in the living *Halter extensa.* That he was referring to the interruption of the *black area* and not to the "paddle" is shown by his previous statement that the hind wing had an apical fiddle-shaped expansion, which was dark-colored. Pierce and Kirkby apparently concluded that *americana* had a single, undivided dilation. The two dilations are shown in Navas' figure of the type (1913).

Since *metzeli* has two dilations of the hind wing, as in *americana,* and resembles that species in all other known features, it may most reasonably be placed in the genus *Marquettia,* to which it is hereby assigned.

A generic revision of all known nemopterids may result in considerably generic synonymy, with *Marquettia* included. However, until such a revision is made, I believe *Marquettia* should be retained for these two fossil Nearctic species.



Text figure 1. Fore and hind wings of *Marquettia americana* (Cock.). Drawing based mainly on holotype, with additional details of specimen no. 4514, University of Colorado Museum.

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THE RELEASE OF ALARM AND ATTACK BEHAVIOR IN SOME NEW WORLD ARMY ANTS

By William L. Brown, Jr.
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Harvard University

The effect of odoriferous mandibular gland secretions (pheromones) as releasers of alarm behavior in *Pogonomyrmex* and some other ants has recently been investigated by Wilson (1959 and pers. commun.). It is not known how widely among the subfamilies of ants that the same or an homologous effect may occur, but Wilson, myself and others have been able to detect various pungent odors originating from the heads of worker ants in the subfamilies Myrmicinae (*Pogonomyrmex, Solenopsis*), Ponerinae (*Paraponera, Mesoponera, Leptogenys*), and Formicinae (*Acanthomyops, Lasius*). That these substances so often originate in the head is suggestive of a similar source and behavioral function, but in most cases experimental evidence of their function is lacking.[1]

A recent study trip to the Smithsonian Institution's Canal Zone Biological Area station on Barro Colorado Island[2] afforded a chance to study alarm behavior in the New World army ants (Dorylinae, tribe Ecitonini). Since the trip had other primary purposes, the army ant observations were rather limited, and some obvious tests that suggest themselves, such as trials of interspecific reactions, were not carried out. The results obtained, however, do indicate that the detailed study of army ant pheromones would be a rewarding one. Schneirla (1956 and earlier papers) has made intensive studies of the army ants of Barro Colorado, and has outlined many aspects of their biology, including the remarkably regular nomadic habits of the *Eciton* species. The first species I studied, *E. hamatum* (Fabricius), was also the one given the most attention by Schneirla and his colleagues; it is the most conspicuous army ant on the island.

A trunk trail of *E. hamatum* was found at midday running along the edge of a buttress root of a forest tree. The two-way stream of ants varied from two to six individuals in width, and the incoming ants bore much booty, mostly the pupae of the fungus-growing ant,

[1]I have found that ants of the Australian formicine genus *Calomyrmex* produce a bright yellow or scarlet droplet at the base of each mandible when roughly disturbed, but it is not known whether this substance is odoriferous.

[2]The trip was supported by a grant from the Milton Fund of Harvard University.

Atta. A faint "meaty" odor was noticed as I brought my face close to the column; this odor increased markedly when I agitated a part of the column with my machete, and the ants savagely attacked the blade, biting and attempting to sting. (The meatlike odor of some New World army ants has been well known for years.) Selecting one of the large soldiers, with its conspicuous, shiny whitish head and long hooked jaws, I removed the head with forceps and placed it in the column, where it was at once vigorously attacked, bitten and stung by a mass of workers and soldiers that collected around it. The actively struggling body of this same soldier was then placed in the column at another point; the headless body, despite its considerable and highly irregular activity, attracted only momentary antennal play from passing nestmates.

Several more trials like this were made at different points along the column; it was found that soldier heads attracted more attackers than did the much smaller worker heads tried, and also that freshly crushed soldier heads drew a stronger attack than intact ones. To my nose, the strength of the meaty odor in each case appeared to be roughly proportional to the number and activity of the attackers, and I could detect none of this odor from the postcephalic part of the body after the heads had been removed. (Later, in the laboratory, crushed soldier heads of *E. hamatum* were sniffed by two colleagues and myself, and compared directly with the odor of beef and vegetable bouillon cubes, with the result that all of us found the odors close if not identical.)

Next, small dead twigs were broken in half, and one half rubbed against the crushed head of a worker. Such twigs when placed in the column were subjected to an attack as massive and vigorous as were the crushed heads alone. The untreated half of each twig, serving as a control placed at another point along the column, never received more than fleeting attention from passing soldiers and workers.

Similar results were consistently obtained with another column of *E. hamatum* found on a subsequent day.

The same kind of investigation was carried out briefly with a column of *Nomamyrmex esenbecki* (Westwood) found in the forest, utilizing the large and medium-sized workers for the decapitation test (this species lacks large soldiers). To my nose, crushed heads of this species have a different and weaker odor than do *E. hamatum* workers of the same size, but the alarm and attack reaction they provoked was similar to that of *hamatum* in intensity.

The test was also made with soldiers from a raiding swarm of

Labidus praedator (Fr. Smith) found in the Laboratory Clearing on Barro Colorado, and results were again similar to those of the first trials with *E. hamatum*. I could not be sure in this case that I detected any odor at all from the crushed soldier heads of *L. praedator*, but the intensity of attack on these heads indicated that an odor must have been readily detectable by the workers participating.

In summary, the detached heads of workers or soldiers of these army ants from three different genera were attacked by their nestmates when placed in the foraging column, while the remainder of the body evoked little or no response. Objects smeared with the substance from the crushed heads of soldiers drew intense attack, while untreated control objects did not. It seems likely that a pheromone originating in the head, and most likely specifically in the mandibular glands, occurs in the army ants as well as in *Pogonomyrmex*, and that its function is similar. Apparently, the ants will attack any strange object presented close to the center of concentration of the alarm odor.

The question arises as to how the individuals that are disturbed into producing the alarm odor are not themselves attacked in the normal course of events. Two of the most likely answers that suggest themselves to me are: (1) workers and soldiers, when normally disturbed, give off much lesser amounts of the alarm odor than is produced when a head is severed from the body or crushed, and the attack on severed heads or crushed heads represents a supernormal stimulus; (2) the postcephalic part of the ant's body bears some quality, probably again pheromonal in nature, that neutralizes attack behavior that might otherwise be released in nestmates. The second answer is favored as an hypothesis in the absence of further experiments. If a given soldier were protected by such a neutralizer or "identification pheromone," or by a "nest odor," it would presumably be able to indicate by means of alarm odor release the locality of an intruding disturbance without itself being subject to attack by its nestmates.

I should like to acknowledge helpful suggestions made by Prof. E. O. Wilson during the course of the work and the preparation of the manuscript.

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